

BIROn - Birkbeck Institutional Research Online

Dornelles, A.Z. and Boonstra, W.J. and Delabre, Izabela and Denney, J.M. and Nunes, R.J. and Jentsch, A. and Nicholas, K.A. and Schroter, M. and Seppelt, R. and Settele, J. and Shackelford, N. and Standish, R.J. and Oliver, T.H. (2022) Transformation archetypes in global food systems. *Sustainability Science* 17 , pp. 1827-1840. ISSN 1862-4065.

Downloaded from: <https://eprints.bbk.ac.uk/id/eprint/47365/>

Usage Guidelines:

Please refer to usage guidelines at <https://eprints.bbk.ac.uk/policies.html>
contact lib-eprints@bbk.ac.uk.

or alternatively

1 **Transformation archetypes in global food systems**

2

3 André Z. Dornelles^{1,2*}, Wiebren J. Boonstra^{3,3a}, Izabela Delabre⁴, J. Michael Denney⁵,
4 Richard J. Nunes², Anke Jentsch⁶, Kimberly A. Nicholas⁷, Matthias Schröter⁸, Ralf
5 Seppelt^{9, 9a, 9b}, Josef Settele^{9b, 10, 10a}, Nancy Shackelford¹¹, Rachel J. Standish¹², Tom H.
6 Oliver¹.

7

8 ¹ School of Biological Sciences, University of Reading, UK

9 ² Department of Real Estate and Planning, Henley Business School, University of
10 Reading, UK

11 ³ Stockholm Resilience Centre, Stockholm University, Sweden

12 ^{3a} Natural Resources and Sustainable Development, Department of Earth Science,
13 Uppsala University, Sweden

14 ⁴ Department of Geography, Birkbeck, University of London, UK

15 ⁵ Center for Governance and Sustainability, University of Massachusetts Boston, USA

16 ⁶ Bayreuth Center of Ecology and Environmental Research (BayCEER), University of
17 Bayreuth, Germany

18 ⁷ Lund University Centre for Sustainability Studies (LUCSUS), Sweden

19 ⁸ Zukunft – Umwelt – Gesellschaft (ZUG), Germany

20 ⁹ Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research - UFZ, Computational Landscape
21 Ecology, Leipzig, Germany

22 ^{9a} Institute of Geoscience & Geography, Martin-Luther-University Halle-Wittenberg,
23 Halle (Saale), Germany

24 ^{9b} German Centre for Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv), Halle-Jena-Leipzig,
25 Germany

26 ¹⁰ Helmholtz Centre for Environmental Research- UFZ, Conservation Biology, Germany

27 ^{10a} Institute of Biological Sciences, College of Arts and Sciences, University of the
28 Philippines, Los Baños, College, Laguna, Philippines

29 ¹¹ Institute of Arctic and Alpine Research, University of Colorado at Boulder, USA

30 ¹² Environmental and Conservation Sciences, Murdoch University, Western Australia

31

32 ***Corresponding author:**

33 André Zuanazzi Dornelles

34 Ecology and Evolutionary Biology, School of Biological Sciences – University of
35 Reading – Health and Life Sciences Building, Reading, RG6 6AS, United Kingdom.

36 Telephone: +44(0)118 3787016. E-mail: a_dornelles@hotmail.com

37 Main text word count: 6,200.

38

39 **Author Contributions:**

40 All co-authors contributed to article conceptualisation and writing. André Dornelles was

41 responsible for data curation, visualisation and writing the original draft. André

42 Dornelles, Tom Oliver, Ralf Seppelt, and Michael Denney designed the methodology,

43 conducted the formal analysis, and verified the underlying data. André Dornelles and

44 Tom Oliver contributed to funding acquisition and article supervision. All authors had

45 full access to all data in the study and accept responsibility to submit this work for

46 publication.

47 **Abstract**

48 Food systems are primary drivers of human and environmental health, but the
49 understanding of their dynamic co-transformation remains limited. We use a data-driven
50 approach to disentangle different development pathways of national food systems (i.e.,
51 ‘transformation archetypes’) based on historical, intertwined trends of food system
52 structure (agricultural inputs and outputs and food trade), and social and environmental
53 outcomes (malnutrition, biosphere integrity, and greenhouse gases emissions) for 161
54 countries, from 1995 to 2015. We found that whilst food systems have consistently
55 improved in terms of productivity (ratio of output to input), other metrics suggest a
56 typology of three transformation archetypes across countries: rapidly expansionist,
57 expansionist, and consolidative. Expansionist and rapidly expansionist archetypes
58 increased in agricultural area, synthetic fertiliser use, and gross agricultural output, which
59 was accompanied by malnutrition, environmental pressures, and lasting socioeconomic
60 disadvantages. The lowest rates of change in key structure metrics were found in the
61 consolidative archetype. Across all transformation archetypes, agricultural greenhouse
62 gases emissions, synthetic fertiliser use, and ecological footprint of consumption
63 increased faster than the expansion of agricultural area, and obesity levels increased more
64 rapidly than undernourishment decreased. The persistence of these unsustainable
65 trajectories occurred independently of improvements in productivity. Our model
66 underscores the importance of quantifying the multiple human and environmental
67 dimensions of food systems transformations and can serve as a starting point to identify
68 potential leverage points for sustainability transformations. More attention is thus
69 warranted to alternative development pathways able of delivering equitable benefits to
70 both productivity and to human and environmental health.

71 **Introduction**

72 Industrial agriculture arose as a defining feature of global food systems, revealed by
73 increased total crop yields and higher yield per input at scale. Important advancements in
74 skills, technology, infrastructure, and trade led to increased food productivity (i.e., output
75 in terms of weight or energy of food per unit of input invested - Benton & Bailey, 2019)
76 and enabled the expansion of global, interconnected food supply chains. The widespread
77 premise of prioritising yields and cheaper food to improve human nutrition, however, has
78 recently been under scrutiny due to its detrimental effects to sustainable development
79 (Lindgren et al., 2018; Sukhdev, 2018). From the perspective of the Sustainable
80 Development Goals (SDGs) framework, numerous synergies and trade-offs exist between
81 the 17 goals and 169 targets for human well-being, economic prosperity, and
82 environmental protection (Pradhan et al., 2017). Arguably, food systems are the entity
83 that primarily connects good health and wellbeing (SDG 3), sustainable consumption and
84 production (SDG 12), and life on land (SDG 15 - Pradyumna, 2018).

85 Global food systems have been failing to deliver adequate diets for everyone: an
86 increasing prevalence of 9% of the global population is undernourished whilst,
87 paradoxically, obesity currently affects more than 13% of individuals (FAO et al., 2020)
88 and roughly 1/3 of all food is lost or wasted (Aschemann-Witzel, 2016). Around 87% of
89 all countries worldwide exhibit the coexistence of insufficient or excessive forms of
90 malnutrition (Development Initiatives, 2020), and diet is the number one risk factor for
91 mortality and morbidity worldwide (Afshin et al., 2019). In parallel, from production to
92 consumption, food is responsible for 34% of anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions
93 (Crippa et al., 2021; Poore & Nemecek, 2018) and about 70% of freshwater use (Whitmee
94 et al., 2015). Agriculture is the prime driver of the transgression of biosphere integrity

95 and biogeochemical flow (e.g., nitrogen deposition - Campbell et al., 2017) and, in turn,
96 is the sector most affected by these transgressions (IPCC, 2014). To move away from
97 these trajectories, it is of paramount importance to analyse the systemic patterns of change
98 of food systems as an entry point to the identification of potential leverage points for
99 sustainability transformations (Abson et al., 2017; Oliver et al., 2018).

100 **Transformation of global food systems**

101 The investigation of the complex and dynamic interactions driving the sustainability and
102 efficiency of food systems from input to output remains a challenge (Hadjikakou et al.,
103 2019; TEEB, 2018). Food research is often fragmented across academic disciplines and
104 sectors, and production or consumption stages tend to be studied in isolation from one
105 another (Campbell et al., 2016; Dornelles et al., 2020). If metrics of health, equity and
106 sustainability are not embedded in a more comprehensive framework of food systems
107 efficiency (i.e., ‘the number of people that can be fed healthily and sustainably per unit
108 input invested’ - Benton & Bailey, 2019), a narrow focus on increased productivity has
109 the potential to accelerate detrimental effects for planetary and human health in an
110 increasingly connected world (Bahadur et al., 2018; Bengtsson et al., 2018; Seppelt et al.,
111 2020; Willett et al., 2019). Critically, a clearer understanding of the magnitude and
112 direction of trade-offs between food systems’ productivity and key metrics is sorely
113 needed for sustainability transformations (Fears et al., 2019; Nyström et al., 2019; Oliver
114 et al., 2018; Pradhan et al., 2017). One way to achieve this, as we present in this study, is
115 via an integrated model using standardized indicators to capture the multiple dimensions
116 of food systems.

117 Whilst a focus on productivity of food systems has been elevated to a protagonist
118 narrative (e.g., the claim that the world will need to produce 70% more food by 2050 has

119 assumed unexpected traction - Alexandratos & Bruinsma, 2012; Benton & Bailey, 2019;
120 Sukhdev, 2018), more holistic development pathways of multiple, co-transforming
121 environmental and social outcomes in global food systems are often unquantified. Such
122 social-ecological links related to food tend to be reported either in the form of states or
123 trajectories. The state of multiple environmental, social and economic indicators across
124 food systems have been measured cross-sectionally at different times and spaces
125 (Chaudhary et al., 2018; Zurek et al., 2018) by the impacts of specific food types (Clark
126 & Tilman, 2017; Poore & Nemecek, 2018; Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018), and/or by
127 estimates of future production hotspots or of potential mitigation measures for biosphere
128 integrity (Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018; Zabel et al., 2019). In contrast, longitudinal
129 studies track variables through time and so offer a means to connect cause and effect, and
130 to study trajectories. This approach has been used previously to study transformation
131 pathways of food systems for pre-defined groups of countries (e.g., by areas of free trade
132 or level of development - FAO, 2017), for quantifying the costs and economic returns of
133 distinct agricultural models (Ruttan, 1977), for the exploration of mechanisms behind
134 agricultural transitions (e.g., interactions between population growth and urbanization -
135 Cumming et al., 2014), or for national food indicators of socio-economic access,
136 biophysical capacity, and diversity of production (i.e., ‘resilience indicators’ - Seekell et
137 al., 2017). As the availability of rich longitudinal datasets increases, so does the
138 opportunity to: 1) gain an empirical understanding of intertwined rates of change within
139 and across national food systems; 2) quantify the direction and magnitude of structure
140 and outcome metrics under a comparable methodology; and thus to 3) specifically capture
141 and compare the transformational feature of food systems.

142

143 **Methods**

144 **Overview**

145 Our data-driven approach to identify patterns of transformation (i.e., ‘transformation
146 archetypes’) in global food systems analyses historical trends of structure metrics
147 including agricultural inputs, outputs, and trade, and their relationship to outcomes
148 including biosphere integrity, malnutrition (i.e., obesity and undernourishment), and
149 greenhouse gases emissions in 161 countries, from 1995 to 2015. ‘Transformation
150 archetypes’, in our study, reveal categorisations of patterns of incremental change that are
151 suggestive of specific transition pathways, and the trajectories that these processes
152 suggest or point to in terms of futures that may or may not be sustainable. This approach
153 integrates statistical methods often used in ecology (e.g., cluster analysis and dissimilarity
154 matrixes - Charrad et al., 2014) with macroeconomic measurements of trend analysis
155 (e.g., Compound Annual Growth Rate; expressed as % of annual change and reported as
156 median and interquartile range). Our analysis assumes broadly constant compound
157 temporal rates, which is supported by an additional analysis of five-year intervals to
158 explore potential short-term spikes. Our approach to map the resultant archetypes of food
159 system change with respect to co-transforming environmental, social, and economic
160 outcomes is valuable to help to investigate intertwined empirical links, track the speed of
161 progress towards desirable social-ecological goals, and also reveal watchpoints to
162 potentially mitigate risks associated with the existing undesirable trajectories of change
163 (Dornelles et al., 2020).

164 Our analysis of transformation archetypes in global food systems consisted of three main
165 stages (Supplementary Figure S1): 1) Data acquisition – extensive review and search; 2)
166 Data preparation – standardization and duration filters applied; and 3) Data analysis –

167 trend analysis, cluster algorithm, significance testing, and analysis of five-year intervals.

168 All steps in data preparation and analysis were conducted in the software R version 3.6.1.

169 **Data acquisition:**

170 We conducted an extensive search of publicly available repositories and official databases

171 for comprehensive structure and outcome metrics expressing multiple aspects of

172 agricultural production, food security and biosphere integrity related to food systems

173 (Supplementary Table S1). Our design enabled a comparative assessment of the

174 paradigms of interest: structure metrics are widely used as measurements of increased

175 production (cf. *paradigm of productivity*), whilst the combination of structure and

176 outcome metrics were here used to assess their links to productivity (cf. *paradigm of*

177 *systemic efficiency*). A simplified framework of structure and outcome metrics and their

178 connections in our integrative model is shown in Figure 1.

179 Structure metrics expressed different aspects and practices related to agricultural

180 production as a whole and related indicators of socioeconomic access, as follows: input

181 (composed by agricultural area, synthetic fertilizer use, and agricultural employment),

182 output (represented by gross agricultural output), productivity (quantified by Agricultural

183 Total Factor Productivity Index), and economic metrics (constituted by food imports,

184 food exports, and Producer Price Index of agriculture). Structure metrics, as such, reveal

185 means to achieve the ultimate function of food systems (i.e., feeding people) or are related

186 to them as drivers or elements. Outcome metrics accounted for specific and non-specific

187 impacts of food systems products and/or activities in respect to biosphere integrity

188 (expressed by the Red List Index), land-system change (covering forest area and

189 Ecological Footprint of Consumption), malnutrition (composed by prevalence of adult

190 obesity and prevalence of undernourishment), and greenhouse gases emissions (including

191 agricultural GHGE, land-use change and forestry GHGE, and the sum of agricultural,
192 forestry, and other land-use – AFOLU GHGE; Supplementary Table S1). Outcome
193 metrics, in this sense, express direct food-related goals for human and planetary health,
194 proxy quantifications of such goals, and/or potential externalities from food practices.
195 Socioeconomic indicators were represented by income category, GDP per capita
196 (expressed as nominal and purchasing power parity), and the Human Development Index
197 (expressed as index and category).

198 Data criteria for acquisition included attributes for length (minimum of 100 countries),
199 time series (minimum of 10 years of measured observations, preferentially on a yearly
200 basis), and relevance to multiple food systems stages. Twelve databases were explored
201 from which 36 different metrics were acquired, respecting these selection criteria and
202 described in more details in the Supplementary Tables S2 and S3. Metadata for all metrics
203 are available in the Supplementary materials.

204 **Data preparation:**

205 The metrics acquired were subsequently collated into a hierarchical (i.e., individual
206 variables, derived variables, and aggregate indicators) and standardized format by
207 ‘country’, ‘year’, and ‘value’ for the longitudinal analysis. Instead of using conventional
208 units for the state of a metric (e.g., hectares for spatial coverage, % of employment for
209 agricultural work, or indexes for aggregated indicators), we expressed our data as annual
210 change rate to enable a normalised comparison between distinct metrics and to
211 specifically capture the transformational element of food systems (more details in ‘trends
212 analysis’). An exception to this approach was used for socioeconomic indicators explored
213 in our study which, in terms of practical relevance, are categorical (e.g., income category

214 and Human Development Index category) and cannot be expressed in % of annual
215 change.

216 We took precautions to prevent double-counting across the different hierarchies of our
217 structure and outcome metrics. For structure metrics, we investigated how the patterns of
218 change of raw (e.g., agricultural area) and proportional variables (e.g., agricultural
219 employment) helped to explain wider patterns of change in one aggregate indicator in
220 which they are embedded (e.g., productivity, TFP). All structure metrics were previously
221 scaled and tested for correlations before the analysis of rates of co-transformation across
222 countries (more details in ‘cluster algorithm’). For outcome metrics, we explored the links
223 between the emergent development pathways found across countries with changes in: a)
224 specific food-related impacts (e.g., malnutrition); b) externalities tied to changes in
225 structure metrics (e.g., biosphere integrity), and c) different components of such pressures
226 (e.g., agricultural GHGE, land-use change and forestry GHGE, and AFOLU GHGE).

227 The filters and duration analysis were conducted for each metric in two steps: a) an initial
228 filter designed to collate the metrics which met the initial criteria for acquisition (data for
229 ≥ 100 countries and ≥ 10 years of observations) after the standardization stage; and b) a
230 refined filter programmed to extract maximum number of countries with comparable
231 durations (i.e., number of years) and periods (i.e., in a similar time coverage) across the
232 remaining metrics following the initial filter, covering at least 80% of the possible
233 maximum duration for that respective window of time (see Supplementary materials;
234 Supplementary Tables S4 and S5). In other words, the refined filter of best fit analysis
235 was intended to assemble the metrics by the most reasonable chronological consistency,
236 and thus avoid anachronic comparisons in duration (e.g., comparing the annual growth
237 rate of 12 years of measured observations of one particular country with 40 years of data

238 points of a different country) or period of coverage (e.g., juxtaposing the annual growth
239 rate of one country from 1961 to 1981 with another country from 1991 to 2011).

240 **Data analysis:**

241 Our data analysis consisted of four steps: (a) trend analysis, (b) cluster algorithm, (c)
242 significance testing, and (d) analysis of five-year intervals.

243 **(a) Trends analysis:**

244 The trend analysis was designed to assess the patterns of transformation per year in all
245 structure and outcome metrics across countries. Following the filter of best fit indicated
246 in the data preparation stage, the timeframe for evaluation and comparison of metrics was
247 stipulated for the period from 1995 to 2015. In our model, we adapted the widely used
248 equation of compound annual growth rate to estimate annualized trends in all metrics
249 (Prajneshu & Chandran, 2005). Whilst there might exist legitimate foundations for
250 criticism on the use of empirical models assuming linear change over time (Paine et al.,
251 2012; Prajneshu & Chandran, 2005) we understand that the adjusted equation and
252 subsequent analysis of five-year intervals sufficiently address any potential limitations of
253 our approach. In addition, the use of the adjusted compound annual change rate can
254 facilitate comparison amongst multiple metrics which show varying longitudinal paths
255 while enabling a standardized expression of change across numerous countries. The
256 adapted equation of compound annual change rate, expressed as % of annual change
257 (reported in the results as median and interquartile range), was calculated taking into
258 account the median of the first five *starting values* and the last five *end values* in order to
259 prevent undue weight of first and last years:

260
$$\text{End value} = \text{median}(\text{last five end values})$$

261
$$\text{Start value} = \text{median}(\text{first five start values})$$

262
$$CACR = \left(\frac{End\ value}{Start\ value} \right)^{\left(\frac{1}{End\ value\ (Year) - Start\ value\ (Year)} \right)} - 1 \times 100$$

263 **(b) Cluster algorithm:**

264 The cluster analysis computed patterns of co-transformation in five key structure metrics:
265 agricultural area, synthetic fertilizer use, agricultural employment, gross agricultural
266 output, and Agricultural Total Factor Productivity. These five metrics were included as
267 the key structure metrics because of their: a) key importance to assess the input and
268 production stages of food systems from the paradigm of productivity; b) relative low
269 variance in comparison to other structure metrics (e.g., expressed by current monetary
270 units); c) well-established use across different disciplines in the food literature to assess
271 different components and the efficiency of agricultural production (i.e., ratio of output
272 per unit of input – productivity); and d) independence (i.e., no strong pair-wise
273 correlations were identified for the rate of change between all the five structure metrics –
274 all Pearson’s correlation scores < 0.6).

275 Due to substantial variation in contextual drivers and states of the five key structural
276 metrics of food systems across countries globally, we investigated potential similarities
277 in their longitudinal change using a cluster analysis approach to be able to identify
278 transformation archetypes. For this purpose, we used the R package NbClust (Charrad et
279 al., 2014), which estimates the most appropriate clustering scheme and determines the
280 number of groups for a set of different objects. The cluster algorithm runs 30 indices
281 simultaneously, in addition to hierarchical clustering with different distance measures and
282 aggregation methods and obtains the final result by varying all of their possible
283 combinations. Before running the cluster analysis, we scaled the compound annual
284 change rate of the five key structural metrics by their respective median and median

285 absolute deviation and tested for collinearity to minimize the potential dominance of a
286 particular set of metrics over others due to its magnitude, unit, or range. Finally, the
287 metrics were merged into the same data frame by their scaled compound annual change
288 rate values and only the countries with existing values for all five key structure metrics
289 were included in the assessment by the cluster algorithm (leading to 161 countries in
290 total). To generate the cluster dendrogram, the Euclidean distances of the dissimilarity
291 matrix across all possible ordering of observations (2^{n-1}) were used as input for the
292 hierarchical cluster method (Ward2), which agglomerated the tightest cluster scheme
293 possible and placed observations in order by the square root of the weighted sum of their
294 squared distances.

295 **(c) Significance testing:**

296 Following the allocation of countries into different groups of transformation archetypes
297 provided by the cluster analysis, we tested for statistical differences across groups for all
298 structure and outcome metrics by an analysis of variance model, after the implementation
299 of the Shapiro-Wilk test of normality. Tukey's honest significance test was applied to
300 scrutinize differences between specific groups. Statistical significance threshold was set
301 at 0.05.

302 **(d) Five-year intervals analysis:**

303 As a final step, we assessed the potential for non-linearities in the temporal trends of the
304 food system metrics used in our analysis to influence allocation of transformation
305 archetypes. To this end, we computed the compound annual change rate of all structure
306 and outcome metrics of each transformation archetype in sub-divided periods of five
307 years: from 1995 to 2000; from 2000 to 2005; from 2005 to 2010; and from 2010 to 2015.
308 Here, however, we used the conventional compound annual change rate equation of real

309 end and start values for each five-year interval (and not the median of the first five start
310 values and last five end values) due to the low number of observations in each interval.
311 Goodness of fit statistics were calculated to explore potentially more appropriate cluster
312 composition (guided by the same absolute number of clusters reported in the main results
313 from 1995 to 2015). Within and across cluster distances (Ward2) were extracted and the
314 cophenetic distance was calculated to express goodness of fit (correlation between
315 Euclidean distances in the dissimilarity matrix and the agglomeration output from the
316 hierarchical cluster, Ward2). The cophenetic distances were broadly similar in the five-
317 year intervals and in the main interval from 1995 to 2015 for the three transformation
318 archetypes assessed.

319

320 **Results & Discussion**

321 **Archetypes of change**

322 We identified three transformation archetypes in global food systems metrics from 1995
323 to 2015, as described in Box 1: 1) rapidly expansionist transformation archetype (RETA),
324 2) expansionist transformation archetype (ETA), and 3) consolidative transformation
325 archetype (CTA). Evidence for the existence of three distinct transformation archetypes
326 emerged more consistently than any other clustering across 30 different clustering indices
327 tested (see Methods), with significant differences in trend metrics between the clusters
328 supported by a post-hoc ANOVA analysis (Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). In
329 mapping the archetypes, we found coexistence of the three distinct transformation
330 archetypes in neighbouring countries from South America, Sub-Saharan Africa, and
331 South-western and South-eastern Asia (i.e., broad geographic regions are not
332 homogeneous but show all three identified archetypes in close proximity; Figure 2). Other

333 regions such as North America, Western Europe, and North Asia tended to be more
334 homogeneous, mainly composed by CTA. More detailed results are available in the
335 Supplementary results, from the interpretation of the cluster algorithm's output
336 (Supplementary Figures S2, S3, S4, S5, and S6) to five-year intervals analysis
337 (Supplementary Figures S7 and S8), along with individual country profiles. Below is a
338 high-level summary of the key results.

339 *Agricultural productivity*

340 Our analysis suggests substantial progress from a perspective of food production and
341 agricultural cost-efficiency over the past two decades. Increase in Agricultural Total
342 Factor Productivity was evident across all transformation archetypes, identified by similar
343 annual rates of change reported as median and interquartile range (in between brackets):
344 RETA = 0.82% (1.56%), ETA = 1.2% (2.16%), and CTA = 1.36% (1.29%). Agricultural
345 area, synthetic fertiliser use, and gross agricultural output displayed the largest rates of
346 annual change in RETA followed by ETA then CTA (with exception of synthetic fertiliser
347 use, which showed similar trends between ETA and CTA; Figure 3). Importantly, no
348 distinctions were found across transformation archetypes in terms of agricultural area at
349 the beginning of the analysis, expressed by percent of total land composed of agriculture:
350 RETA = 32.44% (11.98%), ETA = 39.98% (12.23%), and CTA = 42.45% (14.38%),
351 suggesting that trends are independent of starting baseline of the archetypes. Agricultural
352 employment was under the steepest annual reduction in CTA, declining -3.11% (1.79%)
353 per year, and decreased further in RETA, -1.16% (1.62%), than in ETA, -0.65% (1.07%).
354 Agricultural Total Factor Productivity was the only metric amongst the key structure
355 metrics to show no differences across the three transformation archetypes, increasing at
356 a rate of approximately 1% per year. This progress in productivity is widely assumed to

357 bring wider socioeconomic benefits (Benton & Bailey, 2019; Matsuyama, 1992),
358 however, our analysis shows it does not reliably reflect achievements across food systems
359 in terms of environmental sustainability, overcoming coexistent forms of malnutrition, or
360 improvement of socioeconomic wellbeing (Benton & Bailey, 2019; Matsuyama, 1992;
361 Seppelt et al., 2020).

362 *Environmental outcomes*

363 Concurrent with the highest rate of increase in agricultural area, RETA exhibited the
364 greatest magnitude of change in agricultural greenhouse gases emissions (GHGE), and
365 ecological footprint of consumption, followed by ETA, whilst CTA tended to indicate
366 comparative stability at high absolute impact levels (Figure 4). RETA and ETA displayed
367 increasing rates of agricultural GHGE of 2.42% (1.87%) and 1.01% (1.68%),
368 respectively, whilst CTA expressed virtually no change (despite showing decreasing rates
369 of agricultural area). Ecological footprint of consumption increased more rapidly in
370 RETA – 3.05% (1.47%) – in comparison to CTA – 0.99% (3.08%). Two metrics had
371 unclear overall changes due to high variability across countries from 1995 to 2015
372 (GHGE from land-use change and forestry and from Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land
373 Use – AFOLU; Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). The CT archetype manifested a slow
374 increase in forest area of 0.12% (1.07%) – the only environmental outcome with a higher
375 rate of change than RETA and ETA.

376 The Red List Index exhibited slow decrease averaged across all transformation archetypes
377 of roughly -0.3% per year. More comprehensive assessments of biodiversity relevant to
378 food and agriculture (e.g., pollinators, coral reefs, and soil-dwelling organisms) have
379 reported substantial declines in vital ecosystem services over past decades, but
380 comprehensive country level data are lacking (Beckmann et al., 2019; Pilling et al., 2020).

381 Given the evidence of excessive chemical inputs in disrupting biogeochemical cycles
382 (Campbell et al., 2017; Fowler et al., 2013), it is important to note the steady, high use of
383 synthetic fertilizer in CTA and its steeply increasing use in RETA (and to some extent in
384 ETA). CTA used an order of magnitude more synthetic fertiliser in absolute value in 1995
385 than ETA, and two orders of magnitude more than RETA: CTA = 2.2×10^5 (9.5×10^5)
386 tonnes, ETA = 2.3×10^4 (16.3×10^4), and RETA = 9×10^3 (3.8×10^4). Thus, our analysis
387 reveals an absence of environmental pressure alleviation in CTA (with exception to a
388 slow increase in forest cover) in combination with rapid agricultural intensification and
389 expansion of agricultural area (strongly implicated in habitat loss and biodiversity decline
390 - Schipper et al., 2020) in RETA, and to a slightly lesser extent in ETA. Collectively,
391 these patterns unfold a worrying picture of the negative environmental impacts of recent
392 global food system transformations.

393 ***Malnourishment***

394 Yield growth and agricultural intensification have been widely encouraged to nourish a
395 growing global population (Alexandratos & Bruinsma, 2012; Benton & Bailey, 2019),
396 yet we found this paradigm has had only partial success in terms of mitigating coexistent
397 forms of obesity and undernourishment over the past 20 years. Levels of
398 undernourishment decreased substantially in the rapidly expansionist archetype and
399 moderately in the expansionist archetype, by median rates of -3.27% (3.26%) and -1.77%
400 (4.21%) annually, respectively (Figure 4). This pattern reveals remarkable progress, for
401 instance, towards ending hunger in countries that have been most affected by food
402 insecurity – the prevalence of undernourishment in 1995 in RETA and ETA countries
403 was 24.7% (20.4%) and 18.7% (19.1%), respectively. The rate of obesity increase,
404 however, surpassed the rate of undernourishment decrease in all archetypes. Increases in

405 obesity were steepest in RETA, with growing prevalence of 5.04% (1.44%) per year,
406 followed by the ETA with 3.34% (2.19%) and 2.42% (0.97%) for CTA. Note that RETA
407 starts from a lowest base, with obesity prevalence in 1995 in RETA, ETA and CTA
408 respectively as 3.25% (2.6%), 8.75% (1.45%), and 15% (5.7%).

409 These paradoxical trends in undernourishment and obesity reveal an important challenge
410 for the majority of countries globally, since 87% of nations currently experience double
411 or triple burdens of malnutrition (revealed by different combinations of overweight &
412 obesity, underweight, and/or micronutrient deficiency - FAO et al., 2019). This is
413 particularly relevant to countries that were not able to eliminate the substantial health and
414 social challenges from food insecurity, such as those in South America, Sub-Saharan
415 Africa, and South-western and South-eastern Asia (Figure 2). Simultaneous increases in
416 obesity indicate high-levels of inequality in access to food and can overburden health
417 systems in the pursuit of adequate prevention and treatment of non-communicable
418 diseases attributable to dietary risks (Development Initiatives, 2020). An additional
419 consideration is the systemic effects of an increasingly interconnected global food system,
420 whereby rapid increases in both food imports and exports across the globe suggests a
421 pattern of increased trade dependency. Food imports increased for all archetypes by
422 roughly 10% annually (the highest rates of change recorded across all metrics),
423 accompanied by an equivalent increase in food exports (highest values in RETA; Figure
424 3). This pattern in food trade can be seen as a double-edged sword. It can bring efficiency
425 through comparative advantage, monetary gains for actors involved in global markets,
426 and food diversity for many globally (Clapp, 2017). On the other hand, trade dependency
427 has also been suggested to be associated with potential systemic risk to environmental
428 and economic shocks (especially in major export-oriented countries with less diversity in

429 food production - Kummu et al., 2020), with consequent threats to populations most
430 vulnerable to price fluctuations, seasonal shortages, and reduced nutritional quality of
431 food baskets (Davis et al., 2021).

432 *Socioeconomic indicators*

433 The rate of change of GDP socioeconomic indicators tended to be independent from the
434 transformation archetypes (Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). All transformation
435 archetypes showed a general trend of increase in GDP per capita both for nominal and
436 purchasing power parity: RETA = 3.5% (10.3%) and 2.5% (20.4%), ETA = 1.9% (13.1%)
437 and 2.1% (10.2%), and CTA = 2.8% (9.5%) and 2.1% (7%). In terms of human
438 development category (i.e., low, medium, high, or very high human development), RETA
439 expressed, simultaneously, the biggest proportion of countries categorized as low human
440 development in 1995 (n=17; 81%) and the lowest ratio of improvement in human
441 development category by 2015 (n=7; 33.3%). ETA had a substantial proportion of
442 countries in low and medium human development category at the beginning of the
443 analysis (n=25 and n=20; 53% and 42.6%, respectively) and around two thirds of these
444 countries showed improvements in their category at the end (n=30). CTA, finally,
445 exhibited the highest proportion of countries in high and very high human development
446 categories in 1995 (n=18 and n=19, 27.3% and 28.8%, respectively) and was tied with
447 ETA in terms of improvement of category by 2015 (n=41, 62%). The Human
448 Development Index was an exemption to this general trend in socioeconomic metrics,
449 revealed by a steeper increase in RETA than in ETA, followed by CTA: median of 1.57%
450 (0.95% interquartile range), 0.97% (0.52%), and 0.67% (0.39%), respectively
451 (Supplementary Tables S6 and S7). Although only 135 countries were measured for this
452 metric, the proportion falling into the three respective archetypes was broadly equivalent

453 to the full dataset: RETA = 21 (15.5%), ETA = 48 (35.5%), and CTA = 66 (49%)
454 countries.

455 Economic development, traditionally measured by income level (i.e., low, lower-middle,
456 upper-middle, and high-income countries stratified by gross national income per capita),
457 was also found to be in a converse trajectory of change to RETA and ETA. Similar to the
458 pattern for human development category, RETA not only had the highest proportion of
459 low-income countries in 1995 (n=19, 73%), but also only 8 out of 26 countries (30.8%)
460 ameliorated their income category by 2015. Conversely, CTA displayed the highest ratio
461 of upper-middle and high-income countries early in the analysis (n=13 and n=27, 20.6%
462 and 37.5%, respectively) and, simultaneously, showed the largest improvement in income
463 category (n=37, 51.4%). The ETA had a substantial share of countries in the low and
464 lower-middle-income category in 1995 (n=30 and n=27, 47.6% and 42.8%, respectively)
465 and 29 out of 63 countries (46%) improved their condition by 2015. Overall, this means
466 that expansionist traits exhibited by archetypes of change in global food systems did not
467 broadly reflect increased incomes (i.e., GDP per capita) and, in more practical
468 socioeconomic terms (i.e., comparable categories of gross national income per capita),
469 tended to be associated with persistent socioeconomic disadvantages despite increased
470 agricultural productivity.

471

472 **Relevance for research and practice**

473 Our findings add quantitative evidence to recent qualitative assessments on food systems
474 transformation to show that despite increases in yields and productivity, national food
475 production and supply across the countries investigated are in general failing to reorient
476 their trajectories towards the ability to nourish people with healthy and sustainable diets

477 per unit input (Bahadur et al., 2018; Benton & Bailey, 2019; Poore & Nemecek, 2018;
478 Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018; Willett et al., 2019). Our study reveals the extent of the
479 historical and current trade-offs between food system productivity and more holistic
480 measures of food systems sustainability and success in delivering environment, health,
481 and other social outcomes, including how this relationship diverges across countries.

482 Our study was designed to expand the assessment of emerging patterns in global food
483 systems beyond linear assumptions of change over time or multidimensional analysis of
484 single surrogate outcomes. We consequently paid crucial attention in the selection of
485 metrics to quantify links amongst agricultural productivity, environmental pressures,
486 malnutrition, and socioeconomic wellbeing. We analysed key food system structure
487 metrics that enable a nuanced understanding of multiple aspects of agricultural production
488 in comparison to single metrics (e.g., ‘agricultural value added per worker’). In terms of
489 outcomes, for instance, we expressed malnutrition outcomes by prevalence of obesity and
490 undernourishment, which are conclusive endpoints of population health and nutritional
491 status.

492 Our typology explicitly links coexistent changes in food systems structure and outcomes
493 over time and, thus, can provide a complementary and timely diagnosis to other
494 typologies drawn upon share of dietary energy (Fanzo et al., 2020), diversity of food
495 supply (Bentham et al., 2020; IFPRI, 2015), and the literature of food systems
496 transformations. In addition, our study provides longitudinal insights to important cross-
497 sectional advancements in the scholarship. Marshall *et al.* (2021), after an extensive
498 search of food systems typologies in the literature, investigated key metrics that lie
499 between food productivity and nutritional outcomes, such as food environments (e.g.,
500 quantity of supermarkets and diversity of food) and consumer-related factors (e.g.,

501 percentage of urban population). They observed five food system types, with salient
502 similarities to our findings: rural and traditional; informal and expanding; emerging and
503 diversifying; modernizing and formalizing; and industrial and consolidated. Collectively,
504 these categories evince the potential to serve as an useful tool to simplify some of the
505 complexity of global food systems with comparable models and can assist in the initial
506 steps to design strategies and policies for sustainable and healthy transitions.

507 **Reflections on our approach**

508 Our typology is one of ‘requisite simplicity’ (Stirzaker et al., 2010) — we have uncovered
509 important longitudinal differences across the globe spanning multiple countries and
510 contrasted these findings with paradigms of productivity (i.e., production output per unit
511 of input) and of systems efficiency and sustainability (i.e., the social, environmental, and
512 economic links to optimized productivity). In doing so we have followed geopolitical
513 boundaries and so excluded potential within-country diversities. This might be considered
514 a limitation of our approach as it masks meaningful heterogeneity in food systems.
515 However, we argue that by focusing on key geopolitical units, our typology can be used
516 to inform national policymaking and international governance to leverage change in food
517 systems (Abson et al., 2017). Secondly, we quantify and report our results under a general
518 umbrella of agricultural production. We do not consider the details of different food types
519 or groups (e.g., distinct structure and social-ecological outcomes amongst crops,
520 livestock, or horticultural systems) because: a) previous studies are already available for
521 this level (Poore & Nemecek, 2018; Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018); and b) in this study,
522 we want to provide a holistic, quantitative, and complementary diagnosis of global food
523 systems diversity to the body of literature in food systems transformations. Thirdly, the
524 sample metrics included in our model and its period of assessment between 1995 and

525 2015 are a result of limitations in the availability and quality of the datasets explored.
526 Other relevant metrics to our research problem were either excluded from our study due
527 to insufficient observations (e.g., pesticide use) or unavailable for a reasonably long time
528 to allow a longitudinal analysis (e.g., food loss & waste). Broader methodological
529 reflections are elaborated in the Supplementary materials (Methodological reflections).
530 Despite these limitations, we have identified ‘progress’ in many metrics of food systems
531 across a vast number of countries globally in the past two decades. However, this notion
532 of progress, narrowly defined in terms of higher agricultural output or improved cost-
533 efficiency of production, was broadly independent from (or even counter to) the ability
534 of global food systems to mitigate coexistent forms of malnutrition, pressures to planetary
535 boundaries, or socioeconomic vulnerabilities. By quantifying the contrasts between
536 development pathways across national food production and trade settings, we can track
537 the empirical change of dynamic social-ecological interactions. These distinctions are
538 valuable because they: a) show patterns of incoherence between expected food system
539 provisions (i.e., goals and aspirations) and what they actually deliver more explicitly
540 (Poore & Nemecek, 2018; Springmann, Wiebe, et al., 2018); and b) reveal multiple
541 pathways for food system development, which highlights that the future is not
542 deterministic.

543

544 **Conclusions**

545 Our analysis shows that under current trajectories of change, dominant paradigms
546 focusing on higher yields alone are not only insufficient to achieve consensual global
547 goals (e.g., ending hunger or limiting global warming to 1.5°C - Pradhan et al., 2017) but
548 they could even hamper the attainment of other goals indirectly (e.g., health system costs

549 for reasonable prevention and treatment of diet-related non-communicable diseases -
550 Development Initiatives, 2020). Our conceptual design and quantitative assessment
551 further reveal a novel entry point for exploring the intertwined challenges of sustainable
552 food systems, in particular for a better understanding of temporal dynamics. Given the
553 long term trajectories revealed, a step change in strategies is likely needed to make
554 progress that includes improved resilience of supply chains, sustainable agriculture (e.g.,
555 no-till and precision agriculture, reduced reliance on synthetic fertilizers) and educational,
556 economic, and environmental policies towards more plant-based diets (Nyström et al.,
557 2019; Poore & Nemecek, 2018; Springmann, Clark, et al., 2018).

558 Our systemic approach helps to inform multiple decision-making jurisdictions about the
559 systemic nature of increasingly interconnected global food supply chains and, at the same
560 time, to invite innovative reflections for envisioning, implementing, and evaluating
561 sustainability transitions in food systems (Oliver et al., 2021). These intertwined relations
562 inherently raise questions about equity and power dynamics across nations, which can
563 impair collaboration and constrain systems transformation in decision-making platforms
564 if disregarded (Dornelles et al., 2020). Our assessment on pace, direction, and scale of
565 multiple coexistent metrics enables an examination of ongoing and long-term patterns
566 often neglected in favour of ‘safer’ judgments about isolated, individual risks in the short-
567 term. Thus, our typology can help to reveal early stages of opportunities and constraints
568 related to leverage points to sustainability transformations.

569 Essentially, the interdependence across global food systems requires policies consistent
570 with their empirical trajectories and tailored for different transformation archetypes.
571 Acknowledging the synergies between malnutrition, environmental, and social issues is
572 key for sustainable development of food systems, in alignment with heterogeneity at

573 smaller scales (i.e., within-country diversities). Finally, more research is needed to
574 uncover comprehensive ‘watchpoints’ where there are adequate data to quantify shifts in
575 trajectories, in response to targeted efforts to meet Sustainable Development Goals, as
576 they apply to food systems at global, national and regional scales.

577

578 **Acknowledgements**

579 This paper is a joint effort of the working group “sOcioLock-in” and an outcome of a
580 workshop kindly supported by sDiv, the Synthesis Centre of the German Centre for
581 Integrative Biodiversity Research (iDiv) Halle-Jena-Leipzig (DFG FZT 118). We thank
582 all organizers, participants and administrative staff involved in the sDiv working group
583 *sOcioLock-in*. This study was financed in part by the Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento
584 de Pessoal de Nível Superior - Brazil (CAPES) - Finance Code 001. André Dornelles is
585 funded by a Brazilian CAPES scholarship.

586 **Declarations:**

587 **Funding:** The funders of the study had no role in study design; in the collection, analysis,
588 and interpretation of data; in the writing of the report; and in the decision to submit the
589 paper for publication.

590 **Conflict of interests:** The authors have no relevant financial or non-financial interests to
591 disclose.

592 **Data and code availability:** The authors declare that the data supporting all figures of
593 this study are available within the paper and its supplementary materials. The data that
594 support the findings of this study are available from: the Food and Agriculture
595 Organization of the United Nations (available from <http://www.fao.org/faostat/en/#data>),
596 World Development Indicators, from the World Bank (available from

597 <https://databank.worldbank.org/source/world-development-indicators>), SDG Indicators
598 database, from the United Nations (available from
599 <https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/indicators/database/>), Climate Analysis Indicator Tool, from
600 the World Resource Institute (available from [https://www.climatewatchdata.org/ghg-](https://www.climatewatchdata.org/ghg-emissions?sectors=512%2C514)
601 [emissions?sectors=512%2C514](https://www.climatewatchdata.org/ghg-emissions?sectors=512%2C514)), the International Labour Organization (available from
602 <https://ilostat.ilo.org/data/>), the International Fertilizer Association (available from
603 <https://www.ifastat.org/databases>), and the United States Department of Agriculture
604 (available from [https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/international-agricultural-](https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/international-agricultural-productivity/)
605 [productivity/](https://www.ers.usda.gov/data-products/international-agricultural-productivity/)). Furthermore, the authors declare that the scripts supporting all figures and
606 results of this study are described in the Supplementary materials (Supplementary Table
607 S8) and accession codes are deposited into a public repository: [*Add URL here if*
608 *accepted*].

609

610 **References**

611 Abson, D. J., Fischer, J., Leventon, J., Newig, J., Schomerus, T., Vilsmaier, U., von
612 Wehrden, H., Abernethy, P., Ives, C. D., Jager, N. W., & Lang, D. J. (2017).
613 Leverage points for sustainability transformation. *Ambio*, *46*(1), 30–39.
614 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-016-0800-y>

615 Afshin, A., Sur, P. J., Fay, K. A., Cornaby, L., Ferrara, G., Salama, J. S., Mullany, E. C.,
616 Abate, K. H., Abbafati, C., Abebe, Z., Afarideh, M., Aggarwal, A., Agrawal, S.,
617 Akinyemiju, T., Alahdab, F., Bacha, U., Bachman, V. F., Badali, H., Badawi, A., ...
618 Murray, C. J. L. (2019). Health effects of dietary risks in 195 countries, 1990–2017:
619 a systematic analysis for the Global Burden of Disease Study 2017. *The Lancet*,
620 *393*(10184), 1958–1972. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(19\)30041-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(19)30041-8)

621 Alexandratos, N., & Bruinsma, J. (2012). *World agriculture towards 2030/2050: the 2012*
622 *revision*. <http://www.fao.org/3/a-ap106e.pdf>

623 Aschemann-Witzel, J. (2016). Waste not, want not, emit less. *Science*, 352(6284), 408–
624 409. <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aaf2978>

625 Bahadur, K. K., Dias, G. M., Veeramani, A., Swanton, C. J., Fraser, D., Steinke, D., Lee,
626 E., Wittman, H., Farber, J. M., Dunfield, K., McCann, K., Anand, M., Campbell, M.,
627 Rooney, N., Raine, N. E., Acker, R. Van, Hanner, R., Pascoal, S., Sharif, S., ...
628 Fraser, E. D. G. (2018). When too much isn't enough: Does current food production
629 meet global nutritional needs? *PLOS ONE*, 13(10), e0205683.
630 <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0205683>

631 Beckmann, M., Gerstner, K., Akin-Fajiyee, M., Ceaușu, S., Kambach, S., Kinlock, N. L.,
632 Phillips, H. R. P., Verhagen, W., Gurevitch, J., Klotz, S., Newbold, T., Verburg, P.
633 H., Winter, M., & Seppelt, R. (2019). Conventional land-use intensification reduces
634 species richness and increases production: A global meta-analysis. *Global Change*
635 *Biology*, 25(6), 1941–1956. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14606>

636 Bengtsson, M., Alfredsson, E., Cohen, M., Lorek, S., & Schroeder, P. (2018).
637 Transforming systems of consumption and production for achieving the sustainable
638 development goals: moving beyond efficiency. *Sustainability Science*, 13(6), 1533–
639 1547. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11625-018-0582-1>

640 Bentham, J., Singh, G. M., Danaei, G., Green, R., Lin, J. K., Stevens, G. A., Farzadfar,
641 F., Bennett, J. E., Di Cesare, M., Dangour, A. D., & Ezzati, M. (2020).
642 Multidimensional characterization of global food supply from 1961 to 2013. *Nature*
643 *Food*, 1(1), 70–75. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-019-0012-2>

644 Benton, T. G., & Bailey, R. (2019). The paradox of productivity: agricultural productivity

645 promotes food system inefficiency. *Global Sustainability*, 2, e6.
646 <https://doi.org/10.1017/sus.2019.3>

647 Campbell, B. M., Beare, D. J., Bennett, E. M., Hall-Spencer, J. M., Ingram, J. S. I.,
648 Jaramillo, F., Ortiz, R., Ramankutty, N., Sayer, J. A., & Shindell, D. (2017).
649 Agriculture production as a major driver of the earth system exceeding planetary
650 boundaries. *Ecology and Society*, 22(4). <https://doi.org/10.5751/ES-09595-220408>

651 Campbell, B. M., Vermeulen, S. J., Aggarwal, P. K., Corner-Dolloff, C., Girvetz, E.,
652 Loboguerrero, A. M., Ramirez-Villegas, J., Rosenstock, T., Sebastian, L., Thornton,
653 P. K., & Wollenberg, E. (2016). Reducing risks to food security from climate
654 change. *Global Food Security*, 11, 34–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gfs.2016.06.002>

655 Charrad, M., Ghazzali, N., Boiteau, V., & Niknafs, A. (2014). NbClust : An R Package
656 for Determining the Relevant Number of Clusters in a Data Set. *Journal of Statistical*
657 *Software*, 61(6). <https://doi.org/10.18637/jss.v061.i06>

658 Chaudhary, A., Gustafson, D., & Mathys, A. (2018). Multi-indicator sustainability
659 assessment of global food systems. *Nature Communications*, 9(1), 848.
660 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-018-03308-7>

661 Clapp, J. (2017). The trade-ification of the food sustainability agenda. *The Journal of*
662 *Peasant Studies*, 44(2), 335–353. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03066150.2016.1250077>

663 Clark, M., & Tilman, D. (2017). Comparative analysis of environmental impacts of
664 agricultural production systems , agricultural input efficiency , and food choice
665 Comparative analysis of environmental impacts of agricultural production systems ,
666 agricultural input efficiency , and food. *Environ. Res. Lett*, 12.
667 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/aa6cd5>

668 Crippa, M., Solazzo, E., Guizzardi, D., Monforti-Ferrario, F., Tubiello, F. N., & Leip, A.

669 (2021). Food systems are responsible for a third of global anthropogenic GHG
670 emissions. *Nature Food*, 2(3), 198–209. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-021-00225-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-021-00225-9)
671 9

672 Cumming, G. S., Buerkert, A., Hoffmann, E. M., Schlecht, E., von Cramon-Taubadel, S.,
673 & Tscharntke, T. (2014). Implications of agricultural transitions and urbanization
674 for ecosystem services. *Nature*, 515(7525), 50–57.
675 <https://doi.org/10.1038/nature13945>

676 Davis, K. F., Downs, S., & Gephart, J. A. (2021). Towards food supply chain resilience
677 to environmental shocks. *Nature Food*, 2(1), 54–65. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-020-00196-3)
678 020-00196-3

679 Development Initiatives. (2020). *2020 Global Nutrition Report: Action on equity to end*
680 *malnutrition*. <https://globalnutritionreport.org/reports/2020-global-nutrition-report/>

681 Dornelles, A. Z., Boyd, E., Nunes, R. J., Asquith, M., Boonstra, W. J., Delabre, I.,
682 Denney, J. M., Grimm, V., Jentsch, A., Nicholas, K. A., Schröter, M., Seppelt, R.,
683 Settele, J., Shackelford, N., Standish, R. J., Yengoh, G. T., & Oliver, T. H. (2020).
684 Towards a bridging concept for undesirable resilience in social-ecological systems.
685 *Global Sustainability*, 3, e20. <https://doi.org/10.1017/sus.2020.15>

686 Fanzo, J., Haddad, L., McLaren, R., Marshall, Q., Davis, C., Herforth, A., Jones, A., Beal,
687 T., Tschirley, D., Bellows, A., Miachon, L., Gu, Y., Bloem, M., & Kapuria, A.
688 (2020). The Food Systems Dashboard is a new tool to inform better food policy.
689 *Nature Food*, 1(5), 243–246. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-020-0077-y>

690 FAO. (2017). *The future of food and agriculture. Trends and challenges*.
691 <http://www.fao.org/3/a-i6583e.pdf>

692 FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP, & WHO. (2019). *The State of Food Security and Nutrition*

693 *in the World 2019. Safeguarding against economic slowdowns and downturns.*
694 <http://www.fao.org/3/ca5162en/ca5162en.pdf>

695 FAO, IFAD, UNICEF, WFP, & WHO. (2020). *The State of Food Security and Nutrition*
696 *in the World 2020. Transforming food systems for affordable healthy diets.*
697 <https://doi.org/https://doi.org/10.4060/ca9692en>

698 Fears, R., Canales, C., ter Meulen, V., & von Braun, J. (2019). Transforming food systems
699 to deliver healthy, sustainable diets—the view from the world’s science academies.
700 *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 3(4), e163–e165. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(19)30038-5)
701 [5196\(19\)30038-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(19)30038-5)

702 Fowler, D., Coyle, M., Skiba, U., Sutton, M. A., Cape, J. N., Reis, S., Sheppard, L. J.,
703 Jenkins, A., Grizzetti, B., Galloway, J. N., Vitousek, P., Leach, A., Bouwman, A. F.,
704 Butterbach-Bahl, K., Dentener, F., Stevenson, D., Amann, M., & Voss, M. (2013).
705 The global nitrogen cycle in the twenty-first century. *Philosophical Transactions of*
706 *the Royal Society B: Biological Sciences*, 368(1621), 20130164.
707 <https://doi.org/10.1098/rstb.2013.0164>

708 Hadjikakou, M., Ritchie, E. G., Watermeyer, K. E., & Bryan, B. A. (2019). Improving
709 the assessment of food system sustainability. *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 3(2),
710 e62–e63. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196\(18\)30244-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(18)30244-4)

711 IFPRI. (2015). *Global nutrition report 2015: Actions and accountability to advance*
712 *nutrition and sustainable development.* <https://doi.org/10.2499/9780896298835>

713 IPCC. (2014). *Climate Change 2014: Synthesis Report. Contribution of Working Groups*
714 *I, II and III to the Fifth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on*
715 *Climate Change.* [https://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/assessment-](https://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/assessment-report/ar5/syr/SYR_AR5_FINAL_full_wcover.pdf)
716 [report/ar5/syr/SYR_AR5_FINAL_full_wcover.pdf](https://www.ipcc.ch/pdf/assessment-report/ar5/syr/SYR_AR5_FINAL_full_wcover.pdf)

717 Kummu, M., Kinnunen, P., Lehtikoinen, E., Porkka, M., Queiroz, C., Rööös, E., Troell, M.,
718 & Weil, C. (2020). Interplay of trade and food system resilience: Gains on supply
719 diversity over time at the cost of trade independency. *Global Food Security*, 24,
720 100360. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gfs.2020.100360>

721 Lindgren, E., Harris, F., Dangour, A. D., Gasparatos, A., Hiramatsu, M., Javadi, F.,
722 Loken, B., Murakami, T., Scheelbeek, P., & Haines, A. (2018). Sustainable food
723 systems—a health perspective. *Sustainability Science*, 13(6), 1505–1517.
724 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11625-018-0586-x>

725 Marshall, Q., Fanzo, J., Barrett, C. B., Jones, A. D., Herforth, A., & McLaren, R. (2021).
726 Building a Global Food Systems Typology: A New Tool for Reducing Complexity
727 in Food Systems Analysis. *Frontiers in Sustainable Food Systems*, 5.
728 <https://doi.org/10.3389/fsufs.2021.746512>

729 Matsuyama, K. (1992). Agricultural productivity, comparative advantage, and economic
730 growth. *Journal of Economic Theory*, 58(2), 317–334. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-0531(92)90057-O)
731 [0531\(92\)90057-O](https://doi.org/10.1016/0022-0531(92)90057-O)

732 Nyström, M., Jouffray, J.-B., Norström, A. V., Crona, B., Sjøgaard Jørgensen, P.,
733 Carpenter, S. R., Bodin, Ö., Galaz, V., & Folke, C. (2019). Anatomy and resilience
734 of the global production ecosystem. *Nature*, 575(7781), 98–108.
735 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-019-1712-3>

736 Oliver, T. H., Benini, L., Borja, A., Dupont, C., Doherty, B., Grodzińska-Jurczak, M.,
737 Iglesias, A., Jordan, A., Kass, G., Lung, T., Maguire, C., McGonigle, D., Mickwitz,
738 P., Spangenberg, J. H., & Tarrason, L. (2021). Knowledge architecture for the wise
739 governance of sustainability transitions. *Environmental Science & Policy*, 126, 152–
740 163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.envsci.2021.09.025>

741 Oliver, T. H., Boyd, E., Balcombe, K., Benton, T. G., Bullock, J. M., Donovan, D., Feola,
742 G., Heard, M., Mace, G. M., Mortimer, S. R., Nunes, R. J., Pywell, R. F., & Zaum,
743 D. (2018). Overcoming undesirable resilience in the global food system. *Global*
744 *Sustainability*, 1, e9. <https://doi.org/10.1017/sus.2018.9>

745 Paine, C. E. T., Marthews, T. R., Vogt, D. R., Purves, D., Rees, M., Hector, A., &
746 Turnbull, L. A. (2012). How to fit nonlinear plant growth models and calculate
747 growth rates: an update for ecologists. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution*, 3(2), 245–
748 256. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2041-210X.2011.00155.x>

749 Pilling, D., Bélanger, J., & Hoffmann, I. (2020). Declining biodiversity for food and
750 agriculture needs urgent global action. *Nature Food*, 1(3), 144–147.
751 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s43016-020-0040-y>

752 Poore, J., & Nemecek, T. (2018). Reducing food’s environmental impacts through
753 producers and consumers. *Science*, 360(6392), 987–992.
754 <https://doi.org/10.1126/science.aag0216>

755 Pradhan, P., Costa, L., Rybski, D., Lucht, W., & Kropp, J. P. (2017). A Systematic Study
756 of Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) Interactions. *Earth’s Future*, 5(11), 1169–
757 1179. <https://doi.org/10.1002/2017EF000632>

758 Pradyumna, A. (2018). Planetary health and food systems: insights from global SDGs.
759 *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 2(10), e417–e418. <https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542->
760 [5196\(18\)30202-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(18)30202-X)

761 Prajneshu, & Chandran, K. P. (2005). Computation of compound growth rate in
762 agriculture: Revisited. *Agricultural Economics Research Review*, 18, 317–324.
763 <https://ageconsearch.umn.edu/record/58480/files/art-13.pdf>

764 Ruttan, V. W. (1977). Induced innovation and agricultural development. *Food Policy*,

765 2(3), 196–216. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0306-9192\(77\)90080-X](https://doi.org/10.1016/0306-9192(77)90080-X)

766 Schipper, A. M., Hilbers, J. P., Meijer, J. R., Antão, L. H., Benítez-López, A., Jonge, M.
767 M. J., Leemans, L. H., Scheper, E., Alkemade, R., Doelman, J. C., Mylius, S.,
768 Stehfest, E., Vuuren, D. P., Zeist, W., & Huijbregts, M. A. J. (2020). Projecting
769 terrestrial biodiversity intactness with GLOBIO 4. *Global Change Biology*, 26(2),
770 760–771. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gcb.14848>

771 Seekell, D., Carr, J., Dell’Angelo, J., D’Odorico, P., Fader, M., Gephart, J., Kummu, M.,
772 Magliocca, N., Porkka, M., Puma, M., Ratajczak, Z., Rulli, M. C., Suweis, S., &
773 Tavoni, A. (2017). Resilience in the global food system. *Environmental Research*
774 *Letters*, 12(2), 025010. <https://doi.org/10.1088/1748-9326/aa5730>

775 Seppelt, R., Arndt, C., Beckmann, M., Martin, E. A., & Hertel, T. W. (2020). Deciphering
776 the Biodiversity–Production Mutualism in the Global Food Security Debate. *Trends*
777 *in Ecology & Evolution*, 35(11), 1011–1020.
778 <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tree.2020.06.012>

779 Springmann, M., Clark, M., Mason-D’Croz, D., Wiebe, K., Bodirsky, B. L., Lassaletta,
780 L., de Vries, W., Vermeulen, S. J., Herrero, M., Carlson, K. M., Jonell, M., Troell,
781 M., DeClerck, F., Gordon, L. J., Zurayk, R., Scarborough, P., Rayner, M., Loken,
782 B., Fanzo, J., ... Willett, W. (2018). Options for keeping the food system within
783 environmental limits. *Nature*, 562(7728), 519–525. [https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0594-0)
784 [018-0594-0](https://doi.org/10.1038/s41586-018-0594-0)

785 Springmann, M., Wiebe, K., Mason-D’Croz, D., Sulser, T. B., Rayner, M., &
786 Scarborough, P. (2018). Health and nutritional aspects of sustainable diet strategies
787 and their association with environmental impacts: a global modelling analysis with
788 country-level detail. *The Lancet Planetary Health*, 2(10), e451–e461.

789 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196\(18\)30206-7](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2542-5196(18)30206-7)

790 Stirzaker, R., Biggs, H., Roux, D., & Cilliers, P. (2010). Requisite Simplicities to Help
791 Negotiate Complex Problems. *AMBIO*, 39(8), 600–607.
792 <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13280-010-0075-7>

793 Sukhdev, P. (2018). Smarter metrics will help fix our food system. *Nature*, 558(7708), 7–
794 7. <https://doi.org/10.1038/d41586-018-05328-1>

795 TEEB. (2018). *The Economics of Ecosystems and Biodiversity (TEEB): Measuring what*
796 *matters in agriculture and food systems: a synthesis of the results and*
797 *recommendations of TEEB for Agriculture and Food's Scientific and Economic*
798 *Foundations report*. [http://teebweb.org/agrifood/measuring-what-matters-in-](http://teebweb.org/agrifood/measuring-what-matters-in-agriculture-and-food-systems/)
799 [agriculture-and-food-systems/](http://teebweb.org/agrifood/measuring-what-matters-in-agriculture-and-food-systems/)

800 Whitmee, S., Haines, A., Beyrer, C., Boltz, F., Capon, A. G., de Souza Dias, B. F., Ezeh,
801 A., Frumkin, H., Gong, P., Head, P., Horton, R., Mace, G. M., Marten, R., Myers,
802 S. S., Nishtar, S., Osofsky, S. A., Pattanayak, S. K., Pongsiri, M. J., Romanelli, C.,
803 ... Yach, D. (2015). Safeguarding human health in the Anthropocene epoch: report
804 of The Rockefeller Foundation–Lancet Commission on planetary health. *The*
805 *Lancet*, 386(10007), 1973–2028. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(15\)60901-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(15)60901-1)

806 Willett, W., Rockström, J., Loken, B., Springmann, M., Lang, T., Vermeulen, S., Garnett,
807 T., Tilman, D., DeClerck, F., Wood, A., Jonell, M., Clark, M., Gordon, L. J., Fanzo,
808 J., Hawkes, C., Zurayk, R., Rivera, J. A., De Vries, W., Majele Sibanda, L., ...
809 Murray, C. J. L. (2019). Food in the Anthropocene: the EAT–Lancet Commission
810 on healthy diets from sustainable food systems. *The Lancet*.
811 [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736\(18\)31788-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0140-6736(18)31788-4)

812 Zabel, F., Delzeit, R., Schneider, J. M., Seppelt, R., Mauser, W., & Václavík, T. (2019).

813 Global impacts of future cropland expansion and intensification on agricultural
814 markets and biodiversity. *Nature Communications*, 10(1), 2844.
815 <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41467-019-10775-z>

816 Zurek, M., Hebinck, A., Leip, A., Vervoort, J., Kuiper, M., Garrone, M., Havlík, P.,
817 Heckelei, T., Hornborg, S., Ingram, J., Kuijsten, A., Shutes, L., Geleijnse, J., Terluin,
818 I., van 't Veer, P., Wijnands, J., Zimmermann, A., & Achterbosch, T. (2018).
819 Assessing Sustainable Food and Nutrition Security of the EU Food System—An
820 Integrated Approach. *Sustainability*, 10(11), 4271.
821 <https://doi.org/10.3390/su10114271>

822

823 **Figure and Table: Titles and legends**

824 **Box 1**

825 Title: Characteristics of the transformation archetypes in global food systems.

826

827 **Figure 1**

828 Title: Simplified framework of structure and outcome metrics and their connections in
829 our integrative model.

830 Legend: The structure metrics are widely used as measurements of performance of food
831 production (cf. paradigm of productivity), whilst the combination of structure and
832 outcome metrics were used in this study to assess their links to productivity (cf. paradigm
833 of systemic efficiency).

834

835 **Figure 2**

836 Title: Transformation archetypes affecting national food production and supply of 161
837 countries from 1995 to 2015.

838 Legend: Rate of annual change for structure metrics (on the top) and for outcome metrics
839 (on the bottom) are measured by compound annual change rate (median, % / year).

840 Lowercase letters 'a', 'b', and 'c' besides arrows indicate significant differences from the
841 rapidly expansionist transformation archetype (baseline reference expressed by 'a') for
842 each metric at $p < 0.05$ (e.g., 'a', 'a', and 'a' denote no difference across transformation
843 archetypes whilst 'a', 'b', and 'c' indicate that all are different). Arrows pointing up show
844 increasing trends, arrows pointing down show decreasing trends, whilst white rectangles
845 indicate no change over time. The colouring scheme expresses magnitude of the rates of
846 change: black colour designates rapid change ($\geq 3\%$ and $\leq -3\%$), dark grey colour reveals

847 intermediate (1.5% to 3% and -1.5 to - 3%), grey colour specifies mild (0.5% to 1.5% and
848 -0.5% to -1.5%), whilst white colour represents slow change (0% to 0.5% and 0% to -
849 0.5%). Abbreviations: TFP – Agricultural Total Factor Productivity; GHGE – greenhouse
850 gases emissions; AFOLU – Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use.

851

852 **Figure 3**

853 Title: Global trends in structure metrics across transformation archetypes in global food
854 systems of 161 countries from 1995 to 2015.

855 Legend: Values are expressed by medians, coloured boxplot hinges indicate the range
856 between the 1st and 3rd quartiles, whiskers indicate 1.5 times the distance from the nearest
857 hinge, and individual points are data observations beyond the extremes of the whiskers.

858 Horizontal dashed lines represent absence of change (i.e., 0% annual change rate).

859 Lowercase letters 'a', 'b', and 'c' besides arrows indicate significant differences from the
860 rapidly expansionist transformation archetype (baseline reference expressed by 'a') for
861 each metric at $p < 0.05$ (e.g., 'a', 'a', and 'a' denote no difference across transformation
862 archetypes whilst 'a', 'b', and 'c' indicate that all are different). The transformation
863 archetypes are coloured as: rapidly expansionist in vermilion, expansionist in green, and
864 consolidative in blue.

865

866 **Figure 4**

867 Title: Global trends in outcome metrics across transformation archetypes in global food
868 systems of 161 countries from 1995 to 2015.

869 Legend: Values are expressed by medians, coloured boxplot hinges indicate the range
870 between the 1st and 3rd quartiles, whiskers indicate 1.5 times the distance from the nearest

871 hinge, and individual points are data points beyond the extremes of the whiskers.
872 Horizontal dashed lines represent absence of change (i.e., 0% annual change rate).
873 Lowercase letters 'a', 'b', and 'c' besides arrows indicate significant differences from the
874 rapidly expansionist transformation archetype (baseline reference expressed by 'a') for
875 each metric at $p < 0.05$ (e.g., 'a', 'a', and 'a' denote no difference across transformation
876 archetypes whilst 'a', 'b', and 'c' indicate that all are different). The transformation
877 archetypes are coloured as: rapidly expansionist in vermillion, expansionist in green, and
878 consolidative in blue. Abbreviations: GHGE – greenhouse gases emissions; AFOLU –
879 Agriculture, Forestry and Other Land Use.